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ART. XV.—Outlines of a Grammar of the Malagasy By H. N. VAN DER TUUK. Language.

[Read May 1st, 1865].

Introduction.

- I. The Malagasy belongs unquestionably to the stock of languages which have been denominated Malayo-Polynesian, and more particularly to the great Western Branch, which comprehends the languages of the lank-haired races of the Indian Archipelago and the Philippines, and which we shall call Malayan (from the most predominating language in that part of the globe), to distinguish it from the Eastern Branch, which may be called Maorian (from the Maori of New Zealand), the geographical term Polynesian having the disadvantage of not excluding the languages of the crisp-haired The Malagasy bears the greatest analogy to the Toba races. dialect of the Batak in pronunciation (III), and many salient points in its grammatical structure may be pointed out (IV) to prove its affinity to Javanese, Batak, Malay, Dayak,2 and other Malayan tongues. The words, common to many of these, have not been derived from the languages of the two most civilized and formerly enterprising nations of the Indian Archipelago (the Malays and Javanese), as the following small list of words, not existing either in Javanese or Malay, and taken at random, will suffice to prove:3—
 - 1. Bee, uwáni (Batak), báni (Mangkasar), awáni (Bugis), fáni (Timor and Rotti), áni (Bima).
 - 2. Black, würing (Harafura of Menado), büring (Dayak, charcoal)
 - 3. Forest-leech, limátok or limátěk (Batak), limátik (Tagal).
 - 4. Satiated, bósur or běsur (Batak), wěsu (Menado Harafura and Sangar).
 - 5. Ghost, nitu (Batak and Timor), anito (Tagal and Bisaya), lito (Favorlang on Formosa), (si-)nitu (Mantáwey).

Against Crawfurd's Dissertation, p. 4.
 Of which only the Ngaju is sufficiently known.
 Against Crawfurd, l. l. p. 7, below.

- 6. Bananas, ôntsi¹ (Malagasy), únchim (Batak, wild bananas), únti (Mangkasar), punti (Sumbawa and Sangar). The cultivated banana is called gáol in Toba, on account of the vibration of the l, properly the same as galo, as in the language of Bima, and gáluh in the Daíri dialect of the Batak.
- 7. To steal, tákko or tangko (Batak), tákow (Dayak).
- 8. Rat, roaláro or valúvo² (Malagasy), bláwow (Dayak), baláwo (Mangkasar).
- 9. Salt, sira (Malagasy and Batak), siya (Sasak, on the island of Lombok, Sangar, and Bima).
- 10. Mouth, baba or babah (Batak), bawa (Nias), vava (Malagasy).
- 11. Foot, néhe (Daíri), ne (Sumbawa).
- 12. Foot, gác (Nias), kác (Daíri, thigh), hác (Toba, the lower part of a land towards the sea, hác-hác, thigh).
- 13. Nine, siwah or siya (Batak), sivy (Malagasy), hiwa, iwa, etc (Maorian).

Obscrvation.—Many words besides, which might be considered Javanese or Malay, have more complete forms in the other Malayan languages; which puts it beyond all doubt that they have not passed through those channels. A striking example is the word for earthquake, which in Javanese is lindu (in the Malay of Batavia linu, and in the Balinese linuh), whereas Sangar has yet lindur, Tagal lindol, Bisaya lindog, and Daíri rénur. Other words have the changed form of another language than Javanese: e.g., sófină (ear)=súping (Batak), kúping (Javanese).

II. The words which appear to Crawfurd "most fit to test the unity of languages are those indispensable to their structure; which constitute, as it were, their framework, and without which they cannot be spoken or written: as, for instance, the prepositions representing the cases of more complex languages, and the auxiliaries to express tenses and moods." Not finding similarity in them, he is led to suppose that the Malayan languages are no sister tongues, but distinct languages. Here Crawfurd has overlooked the fact that such words in kindred languages seem very often to be different to

¹ o as u in German and Italian. 2 v as w in Dutch.

s nd often = n as medial (compare the last word in III. 1).

a person who neglects the grammar, and satisfies himself with looking over vocabularies. Would not a man, not well acquainted with the Teutonic languages, infer from but, maar, sondern, and to, naar, zu, etc., that English, Dutch, and German are no kindred languages? Such words seem different, because they are very liable to different applications; thus, for instance, the preposition ka in Malay (to a place) does not exist as a preposition either in Batak or Malagasy, but only as a prefix; v.g. ha-darat (Batak), to step to the wall of a bathing place, to go on shore, said of a person bathing, ha-trátra (Malagasy), up to the breast (ha=ka, see III. 1). We need not examine all these words to come to the result that they are originally the same, and only differently applied, some of them being still used in the same way; thus, for instance, the preposition at, in, is in Malay and Batak (Toba and Mandailing) di, in Mangkasar and Bugis ri, in Dairi Batak i (in Javanese closed with a nasal ing); of is in Tagal, Bisaya, Malagasy, and Batak still ni; to is in Toba, Mandailing, and Favorlang tu (Dayak intu); si is in Dairi the relative pronoun, and takes sometimes a closing nasal before the following word (simpera: what is dry), whereas in Javanese it is sing; si is both in Mangkasar and Dairi the particle of unity (sikarang, one moment, etc.).

- III. Striking peculiarities of the Toba and Malagasy in pronunciation are:-
- 1. An h, as initial or medial, where another Malavan language has k; v.g. $h\acute{o}latr \check{a}^{\dagger}$ (Malagasy) fungus = $k\acute{u}lat$ (Malay); hála (Malagasy and Toba) scorpion = kála (Malay from the Sanskrit); házo (Malagasy) tree, wood = háyu (sub-Toba and Mandailing), háu (Toba), káyu (Malay, Javanese, Daíri, etc.); táhotrá (Malagasy) dread = táhut (Toba ma-tahut, to be afraid), tákut (Malay); hávitră (Malagasy) a pointed iron, a spit= káwit (Bisaya) a crook, a hook, káit (Malay), káut (Daíri), háit (Toba and Mandailing); handrina (Malagasy) forchead =kaning (Malay, in Menangkabow it means eyebrow).

¹ The vowel of the final syllables tra, na, and ka, is but slightly sounded, and

in some dialects of the Malagasy dumb.

² in as ng in singer, ng being pronounced as ng in longer (in Malay, etc., words represented by ngg); see also I. Observation, in note 3.

- 2. A k as medial in Malagasy = kk in Toba, where Malay, Javanese, or any other kindred language has ngk; v.g. tóko (Malagasy) trivet = túngku (Menangkabow); vakúani (Malagasy) a screw pine, pandanus = bakkuwang (Toba pronunciation of the Daíri běngkúwang), bangkúwang (Menangkabow), mangkúwang (Malay).
- 3. A final k in Malagasy and Toba becomes h before the vowel of a suffix; v.g. $ul\acute{o}hon$ (Toba) eaten by the worm, from 'ulok and on; $ir\acute{a}hin\~a$ (Malagasy) being sent as a messenger, from $\'urak\~a$ and $\'urak\~a$.
- 4. A final n in Malagasy causes an initial h to be changed into k, and sometimes into tr; v.g. olon-kafa or olon-trafa (stranger), from ólona (man), and hafa (strange). In the same way we find in Toba tiak-kúta (from the fortified village), from tian (from) and huta (the Sanskrit kuta, see 1), and tittittu (my ring) from tittin (ring), and hu (suffix, mine). In the Mandailing an initial h is changed always into a k by a preceding final consonant; v.g. tingon kuta (= tiak-kúta) from tingon=tian, and huta (in South Mandailing pronounced uta).
- 5. In Malagasy ts is put instead of initial s by the influence of a final consonant; v.g. lálanā sárotrā becomes lalantsárotrā. In Toba we have tiatsaba (from the rice field) out of tian + saba (rice field). In the South Mandailing and Daíri an s is pronounced nearly as ch in English (child) after a final n; v.g. ránchang (orthography ransang).

Observation.—Although every Malagasy word terminates with a vowel, a great many words derived by the aid of a suffix, as, for instance, inā and anā (corresponding respectively with the Toba suffixes on¹ and an), show an inserted consonant (r, z, or s), which is sometimes only to be explained by comparison with a language, wherein words terminating with a consonant are frequent. Thus, for instance, the Malagasy root nify (ma-nify, thin) is precisely the same word as the Malay nipis, as is evident from the derived hanifisinā (what is made thin). The Malagasy, like the Toba, not having the semi-vowel y, represents it very often by z (see

¹ Kawi and Javanese ĕn, Tagal in.

hazo in 1, and § 1 a). From this we see words wherein an inserted z corresponds with a y in Malay; v.g. salázană (a gridiron), from sály (roasted). Now saly in Malay is sálvy (mañáley, to cure or dry by smoke or the heat of fire), and this sálvy, with the suffix an, becomes saláyan (which would signify where the curing takes place). Compare the Observation in VI.

- IV. The salient points in grammatical structure which the Malagasy has in common with the other Malayan languages, are:—
- 1. The use of the prefix mi, mostly to form intransitive verbs (mi- $\acute{a}la$, to go out), and occasionally to form transitive verbs (mi-vidy, to buy). The same obtains in Batak, with the prefix mar (Daíri $m\~er$); v.g. marh'oda (Daíri $m\~erh\'oda$) to be on horseback, margadis (Toba) to sell = $m\~erdeya$ (Dairi). The prefix mi (Batak mar or $m\~erh$) is in Tagal and Bisaya mag, in Malay $b\~erh\~or$, in Dayak bara, in Iloco ag, in Mangkasar ag, ag1 (ag2) not fully sounded), in Kawi ag3, and in Javanese ag4 (see below, p. 443, I).
- 2. The prefix ma closed with a nasal forms mostly transitive verbs, as in Malay, Batak, Kawi, etc. The nasal, in some cases, to be stated below, causes the initial consonant of the root to disappear; v.g. manóratrá (to write) = mañurat (Malay), manúrat (Toba), from sóratrá (Malay and Batak súrat).
- 3. The substantives with an active sense are derived from the verbs by the change of the initial m into its sharp mute (p in Batak, Kawi, etc., and f in Malagasy); v.g. pambuwat (Batak), 1, the taking of anything in a certain way; 2, taker, who takes something; from mambuwat (to take); fanala (Malagasy)=pambuwat, (1) mpanala=pambuwat, (2) from manala=mambuwat.
- 4. The passive is made in Malagasy as in the other Malayan languages, by the omission of the nasal; the initial consonant of the root, if lost by its influence (2) reappearing; as, for instance, the passive verbal noun of

¹ See Opmerkingen naar aanleiding van eene taalkundige bijdrage van den Hoogleeraar Roorda, p. 35.

- manápakă (to break) is tapáhină (III. 3). In the other languages the same takes place; v:g. timbángon (passive verbal noun), from manimbang (to weigh), from timbang.
- 5. A peculiarity of the Malagasy worth noticing is the use of a preposition before a substantive, not with the sense of an adverb, as might be supposed, and is really also the case (andanitră in heaven), but very often to designate the proper name of a place as a real substantive; as, for instance, we have Ankova (the country of the Hova tribe) although it is composed of any (at, in, etc.) and Hova (name of a now predominating lank-haired tribe of the island), and should signify in the Hova, or at Hova. The same is to be seen in Javanese, v.g. ngayódya, out of ing Ayódya (lit. at Ayodya), the ancient name of the Indian Oude; the Sanskrit Langka (Ceylon) is mostly in Javanese ngalěngká (instead of ing-lěngka (on Ceylon). In Batak a few remnants of this are to be traced; v.g. júma (Daíri, a dry field for cultivation), although it is melted down from di-úma (in the field); haúma (Toba) means the same, although it is visibly composed of ha (see II.), and uma (field for cultivation, either dry or watered), and should signify, to the field.1
- 6. In Malagasy faha is a prefix, which also forms ordinals from cardinals; v.g. fahatelo, the third. In Toba we find paha as a prefix for the names of the Batak months; v.g. si-pahatolu, the third month (si being a prefix for substantives that are used for proper names).
- V. The Malagasy has the same idiosyncrasy as its kindred languages:—
- 1. Tear is expressed by water of the eyes (rúno-máso), as in Malay (áyar máta), and Sundanese (chi-máta), etc.
- 2. Sun is eye of the day (máso-ándro) as in Malay (mata-hári) and other languages.
- 3. To be congealed is expressed by to sleep (mándry), as in Batak (módom).
- 4. Prince implies, what is to be waited upon (andriană, root ándry), just as in Javanese, where pangéran (Kawi pangheran) is derived from mangher (to wait upon).

¹ For other examples see Tobasche Spraakkunst, p. 65a.

- 5. Backbone is tree of the back (hazondamósina, i.e. hazo + n + lamósina), just as in Toba (háu-tanggurung; háu, see III. 1).
- 6. Vowels are children of writing (zana-tsóratrů). In Batak the same idea, anak ni surat meaning the signs, which are added to the characters, which are mostly consonants, and have the inherent a (ha, ga, ta, etc.), to express either other vowels (as i, c, o, etc.) or the sign of a final n, h, etc. In the same way reni-landy (mother of silk) is silkworm, as in Malay indung sutăra is eocoon; reni-tantely (mother of honey) is bee (in Malay indung mádu means a honeycomb). In Malay, when bow is opposed to arrow, it is called ibu panah (mother of the bow), arrow being expressed by anak panah (child of the bow); the same in Malagasy, renin-antsaky (mother of the bow, bow), and zanak' antsaky (child of the bow, arrow).
- 7. Leg is expressed by a composition with vóa (fruit), viz., voa-vitsi; as in Batak, calf of the leg (buwah bitis).
- 8. Calf of the leg is in Malagasy belly of the leg (kihon-dránjo, i.e. kibo belly, n, and ránjo leg) just as in Malay (părut kaki).
- 9. Ten thousand is expressed by álina (night), as in Batak, millions, or any very great number, by gělap (dark).
- 10. Oli-panjéhy, name of a kind of worm like a caterpillar, the spanning worm (ólitra worm, and fanjéhy² spanning, from zéhy a span), which is the Batak jongkal jöngkal, what looks like a span, from jöngkal a span, the insect creeping with a bent back and having the appearance of a spanning hand.
- VI. To detect similarity of words in kindred languages the phonetic changes are to be fixed by rules, a mere comparison by homophonous words being dangerous, and often leading the scholar astray; as has happened to Mr. Crawfurd, who just as Mr. T. Roorda, in his edition of Gericke's Javanese Dictionary, has been deceived by the sound.³ So, for instance, Mr. Crawfurd compares rolombara (moustaches) with Malay bulah bawah,⁴ which has to signify, according to him, hair below,

See § 15.
 See the fourth part of the Bataksch Leesboek, p. 111.
 I. I. p. 156; buluh is bamboo, and bulu hair.

but is an unheard of expression. The Malagasy word, however, is $r\dot{u}lu$ (hair) + n (instead of ni, of) + $vava^1$ (see I. 10), and is accordingly the Nias bumbawa (bu, hair + m, joint of words + bawa; see I. 10). He further compares $s\dot{u}vy$ (I. 13) with the Javanese $s\dot{u}nga$ (nine), which has nothing to do with it. I subjoin here a few rules, by which to detect identity of seemingly different words.

- 1. Tr in Malagasy, save in the final syllable (III. 1, in the note), is d in Malay and other sister tongues; v.g. $tr\dot{u}zun\ddot{u}$ (a whale)=duyung (halicore duyung, a kind of sea cow); $tr\dot{u}tra$ (breast)= $d\dot{u}da$; traio (house)= $d\dot{u}ngow$ (field house, shed in the field); $tr\dot{o}sa$ (debt)=dosa (sin in Malay, from the Sanskrit), guilt to be redeemed by money in Batak, etc.
- 2. Ndr is nd in Malay, etc., nr in Mangkasar or Bugis; v.g. tándrokă (horn) = tánduk (Malay); rindrină (wall of a house) = dinding (Malay), rinring (Mangkasar); ándro (day) = ándow (Dayak); mándro (to bathe) = mandi (Malay, see 3), mánduy (Dayak); trándrakă (hedgehog) = lándak (Malay), etc.
- 3. A final o(u) represents very often a final i in a sister tongue; which is to be explained from a final diphthong uy, still existing in some languages; v.g. afu (fire) = api (Malay), apuy (Kawi and Madurese); lano (swimming) = lano (Javanese), languy (Kawi), tanguy (Dayak, see below, p. 28); mandro (see 2) = mandi and manduy, etc.
- 4. Where a d in Javanese and Batak is represented by j in Malay and Balinese, the Malagasy has r; v.g. órană (rain) = udan (Javanese and Batak), hujan (Malay and Balinese); ráhană (to cook) = dáhan (Toba), dakan (Dairi), jákan (Balinese). But when the word has already an l, the r is assimilated, perhaps because the Malagasy disliked formerly the company of l and r in one word, just as the Batak does now; 2 v.g. lálanā (road, path) = dalan (Javanese and Batak), jalan (Malay and Balinese); lela (tongue) = dila (Batak); lélakã (to lick, to lap) = dilat (Javanese and Batak), jilat (Malay).

Observation.—The final k of lélakă is changed into f before

² See Tobasche Spraakkunst, § 24.

the suffix inā: leláfinā (what is licked or lapped); from which it appears that it is the same word as the Dayak jelap.

- 5. Di in the Hova dialect is in the other Malagasy dialects, as in Batak, Malay, etc., li; $h\acute{a}di$ (to dig) = $h\acute{a}li$ (Toba), $k\acute{a}li$ (Menangkabow), $g\acute{a}li$ (Malay); dinta (leech) = linta (Toba and Mandailing), lintah (Malay, etc.); $s\acute{o}din\acute{a}$ (fife, flute) = $s\acute{u}ling$ (Malay), etc.¹
- VII. Sanskrit words there are in Malagasy (see VI. 1 and III. 1), but they have undergone the changes of native words, from which we may safely infer that the Malagasy branched off from the languages of the Indian Λrchipelago after the influence of the civilization of continental India had taken place. The Λrabic words have passed into Malagasy directly, v.g. adimizanā (the tenth month, Λrabic الميزان),² talata (Tuesday) is the Λrabic الميزان, pronounced in Malay and Jayanese salasa.
- VIII. A deeper plunge into the grammar of the language is necessary to convince the reader that the conquering lank-haired tribes came from the west coast of Sumatra after having mixed with a tribe resembling the Nias people, of whose language we know almost nothing, because the Dutch Government takes no interest whatever in scientific linguistic pursuits, leaving it to the Dutch Bible Society to prepare the knowledge of the Malayan languages.
- IX. The island of Madagascar may be said to possess one language. Varieties of dialect exist, of course, but are not so numerous that people residing in different parts cannot understand each other, some practice enabling them to sustain a conversation. The principal varieties consist more of a different pronunciation, as will be stated hereafter (§ 17), than of an entire change in the words themselves, or in the structure of the sentences. The Malagasy chiefs like to use in their legislative discussions an ornamental language, consisting of rather high sounding words, that paraphrase the idea, and are easily understood by the context. The Sakalava say, for

² In Malay and Javanese adopted without the l of the article (see also VI. 5), and a different meaning.

¹ Other rules of the transmutation of sound will be found in the course of the grammar.

iustance, ny mahaléna (what is moist) instead of órana (rain), ny mahétsaka (quencher of thirst) instead of ráno (water), famonty (lenitive, emollient) instead of solika (Hova: solikya) oil, Such periphrastic words are also used to speak without offence, or out of delicacy; so the Sakalava say instead of amboa (dog), fandróaká (the driver away), because this animal is considered dirty with them as with the Batak (even those that are not converted to Islām), who call a dog in conversation pangáyak (pursuer) or a shame giver (pananggái),1 because the words for dog (ásu, biyang, and ánjing) are frequently used as terms of abuse. Instead of vehiváhy (woman) the Sakalava commonly use ampisáfy, who possesses a sáfy (which signifies: the hole wherein a hammer is hafted or helved, and figuratively, the pudendum muliebre); which reminds me of the Batak bujing, which in some parts of the country means pudendum mulicbre, in others a virgin (commonly repeated bujing-bujing). The Betsimisárakă say instead of maso-ándro (sun) funjúva-be (great illuminater, lighter). A word is offensive or otherwise according to the different parts of the country; so, for instance, ampela (girl) is almost an abusive term (strumpet) in the north.

I. Phonetic System.

Of the Letters.

- § 1. The alphabet (abidy), introduced by missionaries, consists of twenty letters, and is recited a, ba, da, e, fa, ga, ha, i, ja, ka, la, ma, na, o, pa, ra, sa, ta, va, y, za.
- o. According to French authorities,2 the Malagasy was written formerly with Arabic letters, the power of which however was changed, the Malagasy z, for instance, being represented by the Arabic ya (Intr. p. 422 below). It would be very useful to consult Malagasy compositions in the Arabic character,3

In the Batak Dictionary this word is by mistake put under tangga I. and should be put under II.: to give shame in Batak is the term for scolding, abuse (see ita in the Batak Dictionary).
 See Flacourt, Ilistoire de la grande île Madagascar, p. 195.
 Flacourt, I. 1. p. 188, gives a list of thirteen astrological books, of which the titles are evidently Arabic; and p. 177 he gives the title of an Arabic-Malagasy Dictionary, and twenty-seven titles of books on medicine.

in order to correct some blunders that have evidently been committed by the European ear.

Observation.—Instead of abidy the alphabet should have been called abada, but the English missionaries forgot that they had given most of the vowels the power they have in French.

The Vowels.

§ 2. The a is sounded as in French. The e is the French e fermé (as a in slate). The o is sounded as ou in French, or oo in book, whereas the French o ouvert, as in apôtre (nearly as aw in law) is written o. The o is sounded as in French, and when occurring as the final of a word is written o.

The Diphthongs.

- § 3. The only diphthongs are ai (as final written ay, § 2), which is also written ei (as final ey), and ao. The ai or ei is sounded as ey in they, and the ao as ow in row.
- a. The ai is often contracted into c, principally when losing the accent by the influence of a suffix; v.g. kekériná (kaikitrá + suffix iná), béngy = baingy, béko = baiko (Hova, baikio). In an accented syllable it sometimes loses either its first (a) or its last element (i), v.g. boraiky = boriky, bingio = baingio, sáky = saiky. If it is repeated, the first one is reduced into a mere vowel; v.g. irai-iray (some) from iray (one) is sounded iréray, whereas iray-ráy signifies of the same father, from iray and ráy (father). The pronouns izay and izao are commonly sounded izè (è as the French e ouvert or nearly as ea in head), and izô (§ 2).
- b. The vowel belonging to a prefix or suffix should never be pronounced as a diphthong with the following or preceding vowel of a word; maitso is maitso (ma prefix), maizatrā is maizatrā, fakáinā (fáka + suffix inā), etc.

Observation.—Johns' Malagasy English Dictionary, Griffith's Grammar, and that of the French Jesuits' speak of a great many diphthongs evidently by mistake.² Griffith calls ai in maina

¹ He Bourbon, 1855.

² As, for instance, ia and io, which are syllables commencing with consonantal y (ya and yo, see § 16).

and taitra a diphthong, but the French Jesuits accent maina (§ 5 a) and taitra. It is evident that the French grammarians mean by diphthong two vowels following each other, and forming two separate syllables, as may be seen from the following passage in their grammar (p. 15): "If the accent of the root is on a diphthong, as tho, vho, hoatra, záitră, sáotră, it passes then (when a suffix is added) from the first vowel to the second without leaving the syllable; v.g. sairina for saitra and ina" (§ 10, II). I think both the French and English grammarians have fallen into the mistake of the Dutch in their Malay grammars, where two consecutive vowels (in separate syllables) are stated to form a diphthong.\(^1\) The two diphthongs mentioned above are peculiar to the Hova dialect, the provincial having instead of them è and ô. Perhaps these diphthongs have originated in a former orthography according to the Arabic system, wherein e and o are represented by an a followed by a final y and w (compare Observation, § 4).

The Consonants.

- § 4. The j is sounded as dz in adze. The g is always hard (as in give), and the h aspirated (as in hunt). The v is sounded as w in Dutch and German.
- a. The Hova dialect, which has become the literary language, has but two nasals, viz., the dental (n) and the labial (m), while the guttural nasal (ng), as in singer) is not represented by a separate character, and only occurs there as a final before the guttural consonants k and g. The combination ng should therefore be sounded as ng in longer. In the provincial dialects, however, the guttural nasal (the $\hat{\xi}$ of the Malay) is used also as a medial, and is represented by the French Jesuits by n with the grave accent; v v.g. anaram (name=Kawi and Sunda ngaram). The Dutch, in their transliteration of the Malayan words, represent it by ng, whereas ng, as in longer, is written by them ngg. Even the French weak guttural nasal

¹ See, for instance, the third edition of de Hollander's Handleiding bij de beoefening der Maleische Taal en Letterkunde, p. 31, where dâun is stated to be a monosyllable. The pronunciation down belongs to the lingo of European Malay.

² For want of the proper type, we express this guttural nasal by n.

sound, as in son, sein, is unutterable to the Hova: du vin has become divay (wine), gant is ga (glove), etc. The word for soap (savony) is not taken from the French, but is Arabic (oulled). The n gives the advantage of distinguishing words that are homophonous in the Hova; v.g. oulled (crayfish) = uurang (Javanese), but oulled (rain) = uurang (Javanese and Batak).

b. In the provincial dialects too there is a palatal nasal (the n of the French Jesuits) to be sounded as gn in French (regne) or nearly as ni in onion. It is the e of the Malay.

Observation.—That the literary language does not express these two nasals is perhaps owing to the Arabic character, which has no separate letters for \hat{n} and \hat{n} , nasals which are unutterable to the Arabs as initials, medials, or finals of a word (the proper name Palémbang, on the east coast of Sumatra, is sounded by the Arabs falimban).

Of Dumb Sounds.

- § 5. The vowel of the final syllables ka (sometimes kia, § 16), tra and na is but very slightly sounded, or, according to the dialects, left out altogether; v.g. $r\acute{a}vin\check{a}$ (leaf = Malay $d\acute{a}un$, Kawi ron instead of $r\acute{a}un$), $\acute{o}litr\check{a}$ (worm = Malay $\acute{u}lat$, Javanese $\acute{u}l\check{e}r$), $\acute{k}\acute{o}haka$ (cough, compare Batak $\acute{h}\acute{o}hak$, expectorated spittle). These syllables will henceforth be called dumb syllables.
- a. If the dumb syllables follow immediately the accented syllable, their vowel is sounded as an echo of that of the preceding syllable; v.g. rítră is nearly ritri, maina is almost maini.
- b. Every final syllable, if immediately following the accented one, has an almost imperceptible sound, which may be changed into any other vowel (compare § 12, 14 a), and very often is but an echo of that of the preceding syllable; v.g. tóro (provincial, as in Javanese) = tóry (ma-tory, to sleep), vilány (cooking vessel) is almost vilána (= Malay bālánga).
- c. The a of ka is often clearly sounded when followed by the syllable ha of a following word; v.g. manapaka hazo.
 - d. The y is nearly dumb—

¹ Compare Observation, § 3.

- 1. in the pronoun ny (of him, of her, its); v.g. ny áda-ny (his father) is sounded nearly ny ádan;
- 2. in the final syilable ny, when taking the place of na (§ 8); v.g. ny ráviny ny házo (the leaf of the tree) is sounded nearly as ny rávin ny házo.

The Accent.

- § 6. The accent is on the penultimate, save when the word having more than two syllables, although not derived, terminates with a dumb syllable (§ 5), in which case it is always on the ante-penultimate; v.g. vilány (§ 5b), faláfa (the mid rib of the banana leaf; compare Mulay palápah), hólatră (mushroom, Malay kúlat), rávină (§ 5), lálană (road, path, Javanese and Batak dálan), lalána (law), tánaná (hand, Hova tanană, § 4a; Malay tángan), tanána (village), kóhakă (§ 5). The vowel of the syllable immediately following the accented one must never be sounded so as to become an č (as in English bettěr, Dutch betěr), and § 5b must be attended to. The accent is not influenced by a prefix; v.g. habé (prefix ha, root be).
- § 7. The accent passes on to a following syllable by the influence of a suffix; v.g. $von\delta in\check{a}$ ($v\delta no + in\check{a}$), $fak\acute{a}in\check{a}$ ($f\acute{a}ka + in\check{a}$), etc. The monosyllabic roots, and those that have the accent immediately before the dumb syllables, are excepted; v.g. $l\acute{a}vin\check{a}$ (la, inserted v, and $in\check{a}$), $b\acute{e}zin\check{a}$ (be, inserted z, and $in\check{a}$), $ankafizin\check{a}$ (what is tasted), from $mankaf\check{y}$ from fy (§ 6).
- a. In compound words the last word has always the accent; v.g. tokorý (iron trivet), from tóko (trivet) and vy (iron); salazambý (gridiron) from salázanů (see p. 5, above) and vy.

Change of Vowels.

- § 8. The dumb a (§ 5) is assimilated to the vowel of the preposition ny (of) following; v.g. ny ráviny ny házo (§ 5d), instead of ny rávina ny, etc., sóratry ny ólona (writing of men), instead of sóratra ny, etc., mpamapaky ny ólona (ruler of men), instead of mpamapaka ny, etc.
- § 9. An i is changed into e by the influence of a suffix—1st, Mostly, when the preceding syllable has another vowel than i; v.g. $kek\acute{e}rin\check{a}$ ($k\acute{e}kitr\check{a}+in\check{a}$, § 10, II.), $ol\acute{e}rin\check{a}$ ($olitr\check{a}$)

 $+in\ddot{a}$, § 10, II.), matésa (maty, inserted s and suffix a), atrehin \ddot{a} (átrik \ddot{a} + in \ddot{a} , § 10, I), etc.

- 2nd. When it occurs in the first syllable of a bisyllabic word terminating with the dumb syllable $tr\check{a}$; v.g. $r\acute{e}tin\check{a}$ ($ritr\check{a}+in\check{a}$, § 10, II).
- a. Often a final i (§ 2) is changed into a before an inserted z (§ 14), when the suffix and is added; v.g. salázaná (sály + anň), topázanň (tópy + anň), tambázanň (támby + anň), dimbázanň (dimby + anň), fafázanň (fáfy + anň); comp. p. 5, above.
- c. The a resembles often the French e ouvert in the suffix and, when it is preceded by an accented i; v.g. fehiana and famakiana are sounded nearly as fehicna and famakiana.
- d. Before a syllable, which has the accent by the influence of a suffix, an e or o of the root may be sounded as \check{e} (§ 6); v.g. $r\check{e}r\acute{e}to$ ($r\acute{e}retr\check{a}+o$, § 10, II.), $\check{e}r\acute{o}an\check{a}$ ($\acute{o}ro+an\check{a}$).
- e. In the Provincial dialects the o of a last syllable is often changed into \hat{o} (§ 2) in receiving the accent before the suffix ană or a; v.g. fanaôrană (fanôo + ană), famorônană (famôroná + ană), relôma (rélonă + a), etc.

Change of Consonants.

- \S 10. The dumb syllables (\S 3) undergo before suffixes the following changes:
- I. Ka becomes commonly h; v.g. $ir\acute{a}hin \acute{a}$ ($irak \check{a} + in \acute{a}$), $rob \acute{a}hin \acute{a}$ ($r\acute{o}bak \check{a} + in \check{a}$), etc.
 - a. Rarely it becomes t (robátină = robáhină).
- b. When it becomes f, the only cause of this must be a former form of the word, such as may be inferred from the corresponding word in a cognate language (see *lelúfinā*, Intr. p. 9).

Another example is atréfină, next to atréhină, what is fronted, or faced, from átrikă (Hova: átrikiă, § 16) and the suffix ină, from which a former form átrif (§ 19, b)=Javanese aděp, Batak ádop, Malay hádap, etc., may be supposed to have existed. In hirifina = hirihina (what is bored), and hirifana = hirihana, from hirikă (Hova, hirikia, § 16), the similarity of the aspiration with the spirancy of the f may be the reason, as the corresponding Malay word is girik.

Observation. The final syllable ip of the Malay is pronounced iq 1 in the Menangkabow; v.g. kátiq = katib (Arabic .(خطیب

- II. Tra becomes r, if the word does not contain in another syllable an r, in which case it becomes t; v.g. hoárina (hóatră), zairină (záitră), olerină (ólitră), kekerină (kekitră), ete., but rétina (§ 9, 2), soritană (sóritră), sorátană (sóratră), roritină (róritră), rifátină (rífatră), rombótană (rómbotră), etc.
- a. Rarely it becomes f; v.g. saôfană (§ 9, e) next to saórană In sokáfana (what is opened), from sókatra, a former sókaf may be supposed to have existed from the corresponding Toba ukkap, Menangkabow singkap (Intr. p. 4, 2). Another example is tsentséfină (what is sucked), from tséntsitră (compare Malay săsap, Batak sósop or sěsěp).
- III. Na becomes n, and where it becomes m, a cognate language must be resorted to; so, for instance, velôma (§ 9, e), from rélonă, and suffix a is explicable by the Dayak belom (to live), and indrámină (what is borrowed, from indrană), by the Batak injam. Another example is ampinomină (what is caused to be drunk) from minona (to drink)=Malay minum.
- a. Tenómină (what is woven, from ténonă) and taómină (what is gathered, from táonă) do not seem to be explainable by the corresponding words of the cognate languages (Malay tanun, Batak tonun or tenun; Malay tahun year, Daíri harvest time), but remind us of the constant interchanges of in and un with im and um as final syllables (§ 19, b) in Batak and Menangkabow.² From this is also to be explained arémină (what is rectified), from árină.

 $^{^1\,}$ Ry q is meant a final k swallowed up, being a kind of click. $^2\,$ See Tobasche Spraakkunst, p. 63 c.

- § 11. In compound words the dumb syllables tra and ka of the first are left out, in the meantime either changing the initial consonant of the second, or requiring an inserted consonant. The change affects h, f, v, and l, which become respectively k, p, b, and d; tapakázo (tápaka + házo), misipáry (misika and fáry), manombobolo (manombotră + volo), mitaridákanā (mitárikā + lákanā). The inserted consonants required are d before r and z, and t before s; v.g. efajáto (§ 4) (efatra + záto), manjaidráry (manjáitra + ráry), manondrotsikina (manondrotra + sikina).
- a. If the second word commences with a vowel only the final a is left out; v.g. critréritră (éritră repeated), larakôroná (lávakă + oronă).
- b. If a word commencing with h and terminating with $tr\check{a}$ or $k\check{a}$ is repeated the final a and initial h are left out; v.g. hovotróvotr \check{a} (hóvotr \check{a} repeated), hotikótik \check{a} (hótik \check{a} repeated), horakórak \check{a} (hórak \check{a} repeated).
- § 12. The dumb syllable na occasions the same changes (§ 11) in composition, losing however only its vowel, the remaining n following the class of the initial consonant (becoming m before labials, and n before gutturals); v.g. mihinampáry (mihinama + fáry), manambóla (mánama + vóla), manarankéloka (manarankéloka), manatondápa (manátona + lapa), minondráno (minona + ráno), manantsáina (mánana + sáina), manakonjávatra (manákona + závatra).
- a. On the east coast initial h in this case is often changed into tr; v.g. $olon tr \acute{a}fa = olon k\acute{a}fa$ (Hova) from $\acute{o}lon \acute{a}$ and $\acute{h}\acute{a}fa$ (compare b).
- b. When a word commencing with h and terminating with nā is repeated, nh sometimes becomes ng (§ 4 a), and sometimes tr (compare a); v.g. hozongózonā (hózonā repeated), horongóronā (hóronā repeated), hilontrílonā (hílonā repeated), helontrélonā (hélonā repeated). This dissimilarity is owing to the final, where it blends with initial h into ng, being properly a guttural nasal (n), which requires a consonant of

¹ According to rules, which will be specified below, the pronominal suffixes differ, when taking place after the dumb syllable.

its own class, and where it passes with initial h into ntr, being a real dental (n), which requires in the same way a consonant of its own class. In Toba nh changes into double t, and ngh (nh) into double k; v.g. daláttu (dálan + hu), biákku (biang + hu).

§ 13. If the second word commences with m, all the dumb syllables are left out; v.g. olomásina (ólonă + másină), mamimáso (mamitră + máso), toramáso (tórakă + máso).

Observation.—The *n* being left out here is against the rule (\S 12), but perhaps the natives sound a double *m* instead of *nm*, as in the Toba, where, for instance, *napurámmu* is the pronunciation of *napúran* + *mu*.

Inserted Consonants.

- § 14. Before the suffixes a v (§ 4) is often inserted after final o or a, and s or z after final e or i (y); v.g. lávină (la + ină), antsórină (ántso + inã), nofísină (nófy + inã), bézină (bc + inã), velézină (§ 9, vely + inã), etc.
- a. When one of the syllables of the word commences with a labial (f, p, or r) an s or z are also inserted after final o, to avoid the succession of syllables with similar sounds; v.g. $nof \dot{o}san\ddot{a}$ $(nof \dot{o} + an \ddot{a})$, $tor \dot{o}zin\ddot{a}$ $(tovo + in \ddot{a})$, $firal \dot{o}zan \ddot{a}$ (from ralo, $mir\dot{a}lo$).

Observation.—The inserted consonant is sometimes to be explained from the final of the corresponding word in a cognate language (Intr. p. 422, Obs.). Other examples are ampalésină from ampály (a tree, the coriaceous leaves of which are used for smoothing earthenware, compare Malay ampălas), fiázană (what is squeezed), from fía (Javanese pērēs), hihisană (what is scraped) from héhy (Malay kikis, § 17, 3), hehézină (what is scratched) from héhy (Malay kakas), herézină (what is fortified) from héry (Malay karas), etc. Sometimes the inserted z is a y in the corresponding word of a cognate language, as the Malagasy has no consonantal y as medial (compare § 1 a and Intr. p. 422, below); v.g. salázană (Intr. p. 423), tetézană (bridge) = titíyan (Malay) from téty (Malay titi, Menangkabow titih and titis).

§ 15. Between two substantives, of which the second quali-

fies the first, a nasal is inserted, which corresponds in class with the initial consonant, and occasions the above (§ 11) stated changes; v.g. akondronjáza (akóndro and záza), dintambúrună (dinta + vuruna), voankéna (voa + hena), voandramiáry (vóa + ramiáry), tranonkala (spider's web, tráno, house, and hála, spider), etc. Sometimes the nasal is not sounded, although the initial has suffered the change; v.g. ratokaránana next to vatoharánana (vato + haránana), atidóha (brains), from áty (liver, inside), and lóha (head). From the materials at my disposal I as yet can give no rules by which to know either when the nasal must be inserted or not, and when it is to be sounded and when not. So, for instance, oviála (wild yam), from óvi (yam), and ála (forest) without an inserted nasal, but dintanála (forest leech), from dinta (leech) and ála, and ovimbazaha (European yam, potatoes). Again we find voatavombazaha (voatávo, pumpkin, vazáha, European), notwithstanding voatavohova (native or Hova pumpkin), instead of which one would expect voatavonkóva.

a. To account for this irregularity I think that some of these compositions (ovi-ála) are only made by juxtaposition, and others by means of the preposition ny (as in Batak ni, of). In the Toba the vowel of ni is left out before initial j (nearly as j in judge), t, d, l, r, and s (v.g. oppunjómba instead of óppu ni jómba). In the Daíri we have n sometimes inserted between the vowels of two words in composition; v.g. arinónan (market day) = ariónan (Toba ári, day, and ónan, market, held in the field). As to an initial h being changed into k, although the nasal is not sounded, as in rato-karánană, it is just according to the Toba pronunciation (§ 12, b). Another example of this peculiar pronunciation we shall find below (pronominal suffixes).

¹ Tivo is the name (vôa meaning fruit). This tâvo (Batak tâbu, § 17, 6) is in Malay lâbu (with the first syllable dropt, the Sanskrit alūbu). This word is an interesting proof that the Sanskrit words came into Malagasy from the Indian Archipelago. In the Malayan l and n interchange very often (Tobasche Spraakkunst, p. 64, iv.) so that a former nābu is probable. Now the nasals having a verbal sense are often changed into the sharp mute of their class (littera tenuis) whenever the word is current as substantive (see Taco Roorda's beoefening van 't Javaansch bekeken, p. 8, annotation), and so we get tâbu (see Addenda, p. 28).

- § 16. The Hova likes to insert a y (written i) after the gutturals (k, g, nk, ng and h), when the preceding syllable has an i; v.g. horidi-kio (pronounced hovidi-kyo), what I have to buy, instead of hovidy + ko (pronominal suffix, of me, mine), $l\acute{a}fikia$ (pronounce $l\acute{a}fikya$) = $l\acute{a}fik\acute{a}$ (provincial, Batak $l\acute{a}pik$), $b\acute{i}ngio$ ($b\acute{i}ngyo$) = $b\acute{i}ngo$ (provincial), $miki\acute{a}sa$ ($miky\acute{a}sa$) = $mik\acute{a}sa$ (provincial, mi prefix and $k\acute{a}sa$), etc. This is a rule whenever the gutturals have a, and almost so if they have an o. The inserted y, however, is commonly left out in derivatives; v.g. $kih\acute{o}in\acute{a}$, from $kih\acute{o}o$ (kiho, elbow, corner).
- a. In the provincial dialects a y is often inserted before the suffix $cn\ddot{a}$, before the suffix $an\ddot{a}$, (see § 9, b); v.g. $vonjy\acute{e}n\ddot{a}$ (written $vonji\acute{e}na$). In the same way a w is inserted before the suffix $an\ddot{a}$, when the preceding syllable has o: v.g. $fombv\acute{a}na$ (written $fom\ bo\acute{a}na$) instead of $fomb\acute{a}na$ (fomba + ana, see § 9 b).
- b. The French Jesuits speak of an i added before bisyllable words commencing with o, when they are augmented by a suffix, and also of an o before monosyllables in the same case; v.g. ióranā, instead of óranā (from ora), iórinā instead of órinā (from otra, see § 10, II), ozóinā instead of zóinā from zo.

Dialectical Peculiarities.

- § 17. According to the several dialects the following sounds are in some words identical:—
- 1. Ti (Sakalava) = tsi (Hova and East coast); v.g. ráty = rátsy (bad), fôty = fôtsy (white, Malay pútih, Nias fúchi); compare tsinjo (mi-tsinjo, to gaze) with Malay tinjow, Batak tindo, tsindri (voa-tsindri, pressed) with Malay tindih. The Daíri and Malay has often chi, where Toba has ti^2 ; v.g. kôching (Malay kúching) = húting (Toba, see 3), a eat.
- 2. Li (Sakalava and Betsimisáraka) = di (Hova and East coast); v.g. linta (also Batak, Malay lintah) = dinta (leech),

¹ Johns's Dictionary has ozoiny without an accent (see under manjo from zo). This work has neglected the accent to such an extent that it is sometimes impossible to see the derivation of a word; so for instance, it has ombe, whereas the grammar of the French Jesuits has ombé (chief, magnate), from which it appears that it is to be derived from be (great).

² See Tobasche Spraakkuust, p. 35, D. III.

- tily = didy, etc. Compare sódină (fife, flute) = súling (Malay), tadiny (§ 5, b, foramen of the ear) = talinga (Malay, ear), hodidină = kuliling (Malay), hadi (mi-hadi, to dig) = huli (Toba), káli (Daíri, and Menangkabow), gáli (Malay), etc.
- 3. K = h; v.g. $k\acute{e}ly$ (small) = $h\acute{e}ly$, $k\acute{u}lan\check{u} = h\acute{u}lan\check{u}$ (compare Toba $h\acute{u}lang$, Menangkabow kalang, etc.) etc. The Dairi has regularly k as medial and initial, where Toba has h, and even the character representing h in Toba is sounded k in Dairi.
- 4. R = l; v.g. roso = loso (departed), $l\acute{a}ha$ (Sakalava) = $r\acute{a}ha$. This change is not frequent in the Batak, and commonly takes place by phonetic attraction, by which an l or r of a preceding word is mostly changed into r or l, whenever the following has r or l; v.g. marampis bibirna (thin are his lips), instead of malampis bibirna, silumimpang dalan (a road branching off finger like, i.e. with many sideways), instead of sirumimpang $d\acute{a}lan$. As I have not been so happy as to consult many Malagasy works written by natives, I am unable to decide whether this change is to be accounted for in the same way.
- 5. P = f; v.g. $f \acute{a}o k \check{a} = p \acute{a}o k \check{a}$, $f \acute{o}trak a = p \acute{o}trak \check{a}$. The Nias cannot sound p, and the Batak not f.
- 6. B or mb = r; v.g. ambily (Sakalava) -avidy (see 2, Hova and East coast), $\acute{a}bo$ or $\acute{a}mbo$ (Sakalava) =avo (Hova and East coast), $amb\acute{e}la = av\acute{e}la$, $behab\acute{e}ha = vehav\acute{e}ha$. The Javanese has regularly w as Malagasy, where Malay and Batak have b ($\acute{u}wi = \acute{o}vi = \acute{u}bi$ Malay and Batak).
- 7. $J(\S 4) = z$; v.g. jamba = zámba, jéhy = zéhy. The z in Malagasy is often j in Malay (zoro = juru, corner). In the Bugis j often represents y of the Malay and z of the Malagasy; v.g. \acute{aju} (tree, wood, instead of $h\acute{aju}$) = hayu (Malay and Daíri, etc.), $h\acute{azo}$ (Mulagasy), $h\acute{ayu}$ (Mandailing and Sub-Toba).
- 8. S = ts; v.g. $p \acute{o} ts a k \ddot{a} = p \acute{o} s a k \ddot{a}$. The ch of Malay and Daíri is pronounced s in Toba if not provided with an i^{\dagger} ($b \acute{a} ch a$, Sanskrit $w \ddot{a} ch \ddot{a}$, $= b \acute{a} s a$).
- 9. The Hova has often ai or ei (§ 3) where the provincial dialects have e.

- 10. Instead of the dumb syllable trà of the Hova, the Western dialects have regularly tså, and the Eastern and Southern cha (ch nearly as in English child); v.g. efatsa = éfatră (four, Batak ópat or empat). Flacourt has túmits = tómotră² (heel, Malay túmit).
- 11. Several words have indifferently either of the dumb syllables. The dumb syllable tra, when the preceding syllable has an i, is often kā (kia, § 16); v.g. ma-fáitrā (bitter) = mafáikă, pótsitră = pótsikă (pótsikia in Hova, § 16), smashed. The Menangkabow pronounces the final syllable it of the Malay us iq; v.g. paiq (bitter) = pait (فاهِت). Strange is it, that some words have a final $n\ddot{a} = k\ddot{a}$; v.g. $f\acute{a}sin\ddot{a}$ (sand) = fásika (or fásikia), maina = maika (dried out). In Malagasy a final na represents sometimes an r of the Malay; v.g. fásina = pásir, lamósina (back) = lamúsir (the flesh of an animal's back which extends along each side of the spinal bone); kámbana (twins) = kămbar (Malay).
- a. Sometimes this change of na and ka is only explicable by supposing $n\ddot{a}$ to be properly $\dot{n}\ddot{a}$ (§ 4 a); so, for instance, we have orona (nose), Javanese irung, Dayak urong, Hova orona, and oroka (manoroka), to smell, to kiss in the native way by smelling or touching noses; compare the two significations of the Malay chiyum,3 etc. Both words are originally the same, as is proved by the rule of Batak, where the Dairi dialect has as final n when the Toba has k; v.g. $k\'{o}ning$ (the curcuma root conspicuous for its yellowness) = húnik⁴ (Toba), kúning (Malay, yellow).
- 12. In the Hova and in the South-cast coast the s is nearly palatal, and sounded as ch in French (or sh in English) principally by the influence of a preceding or following i (misy is nearly mishi).
- 13. In the North an i is sounded as e when the preceding accented syllable has a, and sometimes also when it has an e or o; v.g. fáte = fáty (corpse), fére = féry (wound), táne =

Flacourt's vocabulary I have not been able to consult, the alleged word having been taken from Von Humboldt's great work on the Kawi.
 The Dictionnaire Français-Malgache (He Bourbon, 1855) has tômitră as the

provincial word (see under talon).

³ See Opmerkingen naar aanleiding van eeue taalkundige verhandeling van den Hoogleeraar Roorda, p. 48.

See Batak Dictionary and Tobasche Spraakkunst, p. 65, vi.

tány (earth), áhetră = áhitra (grass). The Batak has very often e in the last syllable where a cognate language has i, when one of the preceding syllables has a; v.g. páte = páti (Javanese), baúme (earth) = búmi (Malay, Sanskrit bhūmi). As e and o as finals are often interchanged in Batak (págo = páge, rice in the husk), so we see the Batak táno to be = the Malagasy tany.

14. Some words commence either with a vowel or an h; v.g. $\dot{o}zatr\ddot{a} = hozatr\ddot{a}$ (muscle).

a. The French Jesuits mention as faulty the pronunciation of ándra instead of ándro (day), imba instead of imbo, éna instead of éno. The word ándra, however, is explicable from § 5 b, whereas the others may be accounted for if we consider that an accented syllable easily obscures the vowel of a following or preceding syllable (§ 9 d) to such an extent that it becomes colourless, and thus interchangeable with any other vowel. In the same way we have to explain fóntra instead of fónitra, fanentra instead of fanénitra (wasp, compare Menangkabow pañangit, Batak piyóngot). The expression vidi-kio (or vidi-ko) is sometimes sounded vidi-ky. A current abbreviation is háy-ky instead of háy-ko izy (I know it). Use has consecrated also the abbreviation of ataôvo (atáo + o, § 14) into atávo, of ataôvy (atáo + y) into atávy, and of anaôvanā into anávanā.

Transposition of Sounds.

§ 18. Transposition of sounds often takes place in words containing either hissing (z, j, s, ts) or vibrating sounds (l or r); v.g. makály = maláky (quick), azahóanǎ = ahazóanǎ (ázo), andrahóanǎ = ahandróanǎ (hándro), sakaviro = sakarivo (ginger), zoárinǎ = ozárinǎ (ózatrǎ + inǎ), akitsa = atsika (atsikia, Hova).

- a. In this way rézatră (belching) is evidently the Batak térap (see p. 443).

b. The language of the woods (volan'tanála) makes a rule of it, according to the French Jesuits.

Form of Primitive Words.

§ 19. Primitive words are mostly bisyllabic (or trisyllabic with

a dumb syllable, see below, b). They are seldom monosyllabic (be, lo), and when they have more than three syllables they are either foreign words, or have the appearance of being derived either by repetition or composition. Even these words are often found to have lost one of the first syllables; v.g. valávo (provincial, see Introd. I.) = voalávo (having the appearance of being a composition of vóa and lávo) a rat, batéra (tobacco box) = tabatéra (French tabatière), taláo = laoláo, kaitso = kamaitso, lamósină = lakamósină.

- a. The vowel of one of the first syllables of polysyllabic words is often uncertain (§ 17, 14 a) even in derived words when the accent is on a following syllable; v.g. tetézană = tatézană (bridge consisting of a narrow board, from téty), laférană = leférana (the hock, from léfitra, accordingly what is folded, where a fold is), $kob\dot{o}bo = kib\dot{o}bo$, $kof\acute{a}fa = kif\acute{a}fa$ (broom, from fafa, mamáfa, to sweep, etc.), fanjozóro next to fonjozóro (pith of bulrushes, from fo, pith and zozóro). Hence perhaps also angádi = fangádi (from hadi).
- b. Trisyllabic words terminating with a dumb syllable must be considered bisyllabic, as is evident from the form they take before suffixes (olérină, worm-eaten, for instance is at first sight ólcr + inŭ, although derived from ólitră, worm, and ină).

NOTE ON THE RELATION OF THE KAWI TO THE JAVANESE.

The relation of the Kawi to the Javanese, as of a mother to her daughter, has been contested of late by Professor Taco Roorda, who is of opinion that the Kawi is not the ancient Javanese, but on the contrary a different, although cognate, language, which existed formerly somewhere in Java as an independent language, in the same way as does now the Sunda. I beg leave to call the reader's attention to the great improbability of this opinion, since eminent men, as Sir Stamford Raffles, although not having at their command the materials which have now-a-days become accessible to the Dutch, have long ago asserted the contrary. I repeat here, with a few additions, what I have elsewhere said, to combat Roorda's opinion. It was Sir Stamford Raffles who, the first of all, took an interest in

Bijdragen tot de Taal-Land-en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indie (nieuwe volgreeks, vol. viii.) p. 88.
 Taco Roorda's Beoefening van 't Javaansch bekeken, and Opmerkingen naar aanleiding van eene taalkundige bijdrage van den Hoogleeraar T. Roorda.

the language and literature of Java, and gave in his celebrated work specimens of the Kawi text of the Bratayúda (Bhāratayuddha), which, considering the time of its publication, when Javanese was not yet studied, may claim our admiration.

As the grammar of the Kawi, and a great many words in the Kawi poems, are not yet sufficiently known, I am compelled to confine myself to its phonetic system in order to show its relation to the Javanese as to its degenerated offspring. The Kawi resembles in this respect the Javanese to such an extent that a great many Kawi words may be identified with Javanese only by resorting to a few phonetic laws, whereas some have only undergone a small alteration.

- I. When the Malay and Batak equivalent word has r, and the Tagal or Bisaya has q (hard as in qive), both the Kawi and Javanese Examples:have no consonant.
- 1. To sleep, is in Javanese turu, in Kawi turu, in Malay tidur, in Bisava tulug (see II).
- 2. The Javanese dus (root of ádus, to bathe, as intransitive, and ngedus, to bathe, as transitive) is in Kawi dyus (madyus = adus, mangdyus = ngedus), in Malay and Batak dirus (mandirus, to sprinkle), in Bisaya diqus (bañar a otro).
- 3, Renur (Batak), lindug (Bisaya), earthquake, is, both in Javanese and Kawi, lindu.
- 4. O'rang (Malay), úrang (Menangkabow), is wwang in Kawi, and wong2 in Javanese.
- 5. Urat (Malay), root, is in Bisaya ugat, whereas Javanese has wod and Kawi wwad.
- 6. Părah (Malay, root of mămărah, to squeeze) is póro or pěroh in Batak, pigá in Tagal, pogá in Bisaya, whereas Javanese has poh, and Kawi pwah.
- 7. Terap or torap (root of terapen or torapan, to suffer from belching or cructation) in Batak is tigáb in Tagal, togáb in Bisaya, whereas Javanese has tob (atob, a is a prefix), and Kawi twab (matwab, to belch: ma is a prefix).
- 8, Dangar (Malay to hear, mandangar) is in Bisaya dunguq, in Javanese rungu, and in Kawi renge (see II).
 - II. When the Malay and Balinese d of equivalent words is repre-

¹ Of course all the languages have not an equivalent in sound; so for instance,

the Batak word for "to sleep" is modom or mödöm (compare Kawi möröm).

The o in the Javanese in these cases may be explained by the broad pronunciation in English of water, whereas in the Scotch and Dutch word the clear French a is heard.

³ In the Batak Dictionary, under torap, these words are, by mistake, wrongly spelt.

sented by l in Bisaya or Tagal, both the Javanese and Kawi have r. Examples:

- 1. Hidung (Malay) nose, is in Tagal ilong, whereas Javanese has irung, and Kawi hirung.
 - 2. Tidur (Malay) = turū (Kawi, see I. 1).
 - 3. Dăngar (Malay) = rĕngĕ (Kawi, see I. 8).
- 4. Dáun (Malay) leaf, is in Balinese don, in Javanese and Kawi ron (in Malagasy rárina).²
- III. When a j of Balinese and Malay is d in Batak, the Javanese and Kawi both have also d. Examples:
- 1. Jálan (Malay and Balinese) road, way = dálan (Kawi, Javanese, and Batak).
- 2. Jáuh (Malay) far, is in Balinese joh, in Kawi and Javanese doh (madoh and adoh), and in Batak daó or ndáoh.
- 3. Hujan (Malay and Bali) rain, is in Javanese and Batak údan, in Kawi hudan.
- 4. Dilat (root of Kawi and Batak mandilat, to lick, to lap, Javanese andilat) is in Malay jilat (manjilat), djelap (Dayak, see Introduction, VI. 4, Observation).
- A. Besides, a great many Javanese words are only to be explained by means of their form in Kawi. Examples:
- 1. Elder brother, is in Kawi and Daíri káka, but in Javanese kákang. The final ng is only to be explained from a rule in Kawi, as still now in Batak (partly also in Mangkasar and Javanese),³ that words terminating with a vowel, when followed by a pronominal suffix, require a corresponding nasal; v.g. wěkangku (my son) from wěka (son), and ku (pronominal suffix), my. Of this rule, which has become almost obliterated in modern Javanese, the ng is a remnant, being mistaken for the final of the word.
- 2. The prefix ma (forming the active of verbs) in Kawi, Batak, and other cognate languages, has almost become disused in Javanese, where it has dwindled down into a, and is often left out when the word has, or increases to, more than two syllables; v.g. madyus = adus (see I. 2), and $mangdyus = ng\check{c}dus$ (instead of angdus, the \check{c} being necessary, as the final nasal does not correspond with the class of the initial of the root). Hence foreign words commencing with an m, and being no verbs, have often either lost the prefix, or have changed the m into p; v.g. $n\check{a}sl\check{a}pa$, is the Kawi and Sanskrit

3 In this language the pronominal suffix ta used in poetry requires after vowels.
a corresponding nasal.

The prefix mag of the Tagal and Bisaya has dwindled down into ag in Iloco.

⁵ Also Malay.

Save when initial (see dungug, I. 8).
 See Tobasche Spraakkunst, § 17, IV. a.

manastāpa, suwur from the Arabic , prakata from the Sanskrit and Kawi markata, pësigit is in use next to mësigit (Arabic predangga next to mredangga (as in Kawi from the Sanskrit), pandapa next to mandapa (Sanskrit and Kawi). In the passive the verb may also take the form of a substantive, by leaving out the initial nasal, and hence we find in the passive imbar (active ngimbar, to make somebody swear by the pulpit) from the Arabic mimbar pulpit. The same is the case with angsa (in the passive of ngángsa, to devour) from mangsa1 (Sanskrit, flesh, meat), next to which we find mángsa as verb (to devour, said of monsters and animals of prey). In the Batak, the Sanskrit māsa (month, season) is used as verb,2 meaning to be current, as a word or an expression (properly to take place in the time), and is used next to musin or músim (with the same verbal signification) although this word is a substantive, taken from the Malay (being the Arabic مُوْسِم).

- 3. Srengenge (the sun), also serngenge,3 and in the east of the island, as also in Bali, sengenge) is contracted from the Kawi Sang Hyang Nawe (the God day), sang, prefix, hyang, Deity, and nawe, day; tëngange (the time about noon), from the Kawi tëngah ngwe (halfday), i.e. tengah (half) and ngwe.
- B. The Javanese being fond of dissyllabic words has abbreviated a great many words, and even compounds, by leaving out either a syllable or one of its component parts. To trace them back to their original form we must often resort to the Kawi, as the greatest sagacity is sometimes unavailing, and very often apt to lead us astray.
 - 1. Jāmani (hell) from jamaniloka (Kawi, the residence of Yama).
- 2. Běsmi (to burn, to be reduced to ashes), from bhasmībhūta or bhasmīkrēta (both words occur as often in Kawi as in Sanskrit).
- 3. Dite (the first day of the ancient Javanese week, and still used in astrological tables), is the Kawi and Sanskrit aditya (sun, dies solis; in Batak adittiya or adintiya).
- 4. Páris (a shield), in the dialect of Bantam4 still parise, from the Malay parisey (from the Tamil; in Batak paritse or parinche).
- 5. Angkus (the hook to drive an elephant), from the Kawi and Sanskrit angkuşa.
- 6. Sindur (stark red, very red) from the Sanskrit sindura (red lead, as in Batak still, where it signifies vermilion).

In Malay still a substantive (food of animals of prey).

In Javanese it is mangsa, and is still a substantive (season).
 The r is often put as a final of the first syllable of words of more than two syllables; v.g. marmata = Sanskrit manmatha, dirgantara = digantara, etc.: 4 With the natives Banten.

This, I think, will suffice to prove that Roorda's opinion is groundless, and that his neglecting the Kawi has made him overlook many words in Javanese which are either corrupted Sanskrit or identical with the corresponding Malay, although seemingly different in sound.

ADDENDA.

The Dayak tanguy (p. 8, 3) received its t from a former nanguy, as n and l are very often interchanged under the influence of another nasal in the same word. In the same way we find in Javanese lindih next to tindih, which may lead us to the verbal form of this word (nindih) being the cause of the collateral form lindih (compare p. 19, in the note). By the influence of some passive form, which, according to the genius of these languages, does not differ from that of a substantive, tanguy must have become = languy (Kawi) through nanguy, as t and l are but very rarely interchanged. The identity of Batak tanggi or tanguy (sweet) with the Javanese languy is to me yet a puzzle. Roorda gets rid of the difficulty by supposing the last syllable to be the root, and then by declaring the initial to be a formative consonant, although l is not known to have this power.

¹ Hence in his edition of Gericke's Javanese Dictionary and the Supplement, which he edited with Meinsma, we find a great many mistakes uncorrected, whilst a great many Malay words have not been compared at the proper places.